

Article

EU: The Effect of Energy Factors on Economic Growth

Ayaz Aliev ^{1,*}, Madina Magomadova ², Anna Budkina ³, Mustafa Harputlu ⁴ and Alagez Yusifova ³

¹ Department of Financial Sustainable Development, Plekhanov Russian University of Economics, 117997 Moscow, Russia

² Department of Finance, Credit and Antitrust Regulation, Kadyrov Chechen State University, 364024 Grozny, Russia

³ Department of World Finance, Financial University under the Government of the Russian Federation, 125167 Moscow, Russia

⁴ Governor of Antakya, Antakya 31000, Turkey

* Correspondence: aliev.aao@rea.ru

Abstract: In this article, we investigate the effect of different energy variables on economic growth of several oil-importing EU member states. Three periods from 2000 to 2020 were investigated. Three different types of regression models were constructed via the gretl software. Namely, the OLS, FE, and SE approaches to panel data analysis were investigated. The FE approach was chosen as the final one. The results suggest the importance of the consumption of both oil and renewable energy on economic growth. Crises of certain periods also had a noteworthy effect as well.

Keywords: European Union; oil; renewable energy; coal; economic growth; gross domestic product; ordinary least squares; fixed effect; selection effect; econometrics; gretl software

1. Introduction

The topic of oil importation to EU member states has always been a hot topic. And in light of recent events and sanctions on Russia, more and more attention is being paid to the effect that changes in the levels of energy consumption may have on the economy.

In this work, we aim to investigate the potential effect that different energy variables may have on the economic growth of several EU members states that are commonly identified as oil importers. Some of the variables chosen by us were influenced by past literature [1–9], which will be discussed in the next section. The main variable is GDP (in current USD). The explanatory variables are: oil price per barrel (USD), oil consumption, coal consumption, renewable energy consumption and, where appropriate, time dummies for significant shifts in GDP. All consumption variables are measured in exajoules. The chosen countries have been member states since 2000, and have not left the EU during the period from 2000 to 2020. The list of countries is as follows: Germany, France, Austria, Belgium, Romania, Spain, Portugal, Finland, Netherlands, and Sweden.

Based on obtained data for the period from 2000 to 2020, we created a panel data set. For this data set, we investigated the application of OLS, FE, and SE approaches [10–17] to regression. The results for all periods will be shown in a later section. Periods were chosen for the analysis: 2006–2013, 2014–2020, and 2006–2020. Models were constructed for all time periods. Further tests were also conducted for the final chosen model type.

Next, the main theoretical approaches taken will be discussed. This part will cover the general forms of econometric models being reviewed.

The analyzed articles allow us to find out the contribution of production to sustainable growth and development. For example, research [18] has identified the place of responsible production and consumption in many goals of sustainable development and growth. The study [19] allowed us to clarify the relationship between existing estimates and the need for transformations in panel data models in order to minimize errors. The AMT model



Citation: Aliev, A.; Magomadova, M.; Budkina, A.; Harputlu, M.; Yusifova, A. EU: The Effect of Energy Factors on Economic Growth. *Energies* **2023**, *16*, 2908. <https://doi.org/10.3390/en16062908>

Academic Editor: Luigi Aldieri

Received: 9 February 2023

Revised: 13 March 2023

Accepted: 18 March 2023

Published: 22 March 2023



Copyright: © 2023 by the authors. Licensee MDPI, Basel, Switzerland. This article is an open access article distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution (CC BY) license (<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>).

presented in study [20] provides significant efficiency for sustainable and lean production, which is a practical help in making decisions on the choice of sustainable growth models.

The development of economic and mathematical tools for assessing the level of investment attractiveness on the example of oil companies is an important component, because the oil industry is a driver of the economic development of any country. The mathematical methods presented in article [21] make it possible to identify metrics and variables that characterize sustainable development trends on the example of oil companies and take them into account in further analysis.

After this, models for different time periods will be constructed. The most important information on chosen data and variables will also be discussed. Based on the tests conducted automatically by the gretl software, we will explain our final choice for the modeling approach.

As we get closer to the end, we turn to the final version of the model for our research. Yet again, all three periods will be covered. The results of the regression, as well as their interpretation, will be reviewed in this part.

Finally, we will turn to the conclusion for this research. Our findings for different periods will be summarized once again. Based on them, we will also mention the potential ways that information obtained in this research can be used in economic, social, and political scenarios.

In each of the studies, the authors focused on a specific aspect of the problem. For example, in study [10], the authors identified CO₂ as a central element of economic value. The study [11] focused on the volume of electricity generation. The study [12] is devoted to the impact of the life cycle on sustainable development in the field of clean and affordable energy.

Thus, a distinctive feature of this study is that previous studies have identified various indicators that affect the sustainable development of the analyzed countries. Our study reaches the results, clarifies the previously identified observations, and, on the basis of research methods, allows us to more accurately calculate the model that illustrates the impact of our results on economic growth.

Hypothesis 1. *Countries of EU must pay more attention to the area of renewable energy and the way it can be implemented in order to enforce the GDP growth in these countries.*

2. Materials and Methods

As our data covers dynamics for different variables for different countries. Over a period of time, we can confidently say that we are dealing with Panel Data. Therefore, the choice of models must also be appropriate. We limited ourselves to three main types, mainly: the Pooling (or Ordinary) regression (or Ordinary Regression) approach, the Fixed Effects (or “within”) approach and the Random Effects approach. Their theoretical forms can be seen below:

Ordinary Linear Regression (OR) or Pooling regression:

$$y_{i,t} = \alpha + \beta^T \cdot x_{i,t} + u_{i,t} \quad (1)$$

$$u_{i,t} \sim iif(0; \sigma^2)$$

(independent and identically distributed), where α —coefficient vector (the same for all objects); $\beta^T = (\beta_1; \beta_2; \dots; \beta_k)$ —the same (for all objects).

Fixed effects model (FE) or “within”:

$$y_{i,t} = \alpha_i + \beta^T \cdot x_{i,t} + u_{i,t} \quad (2)$$

$$u_{i,t} \sim iif(0; \sigma^2)$$

where α_i is the coefficient vector with individual effect for each object, interpreted as a nonrandom constant; $\beta^T = (\beta_1; \beta_2; \dots; \beta_k)$ —the same (for all objects).

Random effect model (RE):

$$y_{i,t} = \alpha + m_i + \beta^T \cdot x_{i,t} + v_{i,t} \quad (3)$$

$$v_{i,t} \sim iif(0; \sigma^2); m_i \sim iif(0; \sigma^2); E(v_{i,t} \cdot m_i) = 0$$

where m_i is an individual effect for each object, interpreted as a random variable that maintains a constant value for all t , $\alpha, \beta; \beta^T = (\beta_1; \beta_2; \dots; \beta_k)$ —the same (for all objects).

2.1. Building Models, Modelling, Testing Models

The article attempts to find out how much social, environmental, and human-centric indicators [22,23] affect the sustainability of economic development of the economy. How universal the GDP indicator is and whether its use is justified in making economic decisions was one of our considerations. Does it accurately reflect people's well-being? Long-term policies based on the GDP criterion are irrational to measure a country's overall progress. To assess a country's progress, the use of a GDP indicator is not sufficient. After extensive review, the authors found that GDP was intentionally designed to measure only economic activity, which cannot be equated with social or human well-being [24].

The analyzed studies, in particular [25], assess how renewable energy sources interact with international trade and environmental quality in the analyzed countries from 2001 to 2018 years. The results show that renewable energy is strongly and positively linked to international trade. In addition, the results show that the consumption of renewable energy has a positive effect on the quality of the environment. In addition, the results provide a theoretical framework for the formulation of clean and sustainable development policies to understand the role of renewable energy in stimulating international trade, which maintains a balance between eco-environmental sustainability at the macro and micro levels.

The data for energy variables was taken from BP's Statistical Review of World Energy 2021 [26]—being the latest one available. The data for GDP was taken from the World Bank and are shown in Figure 1.

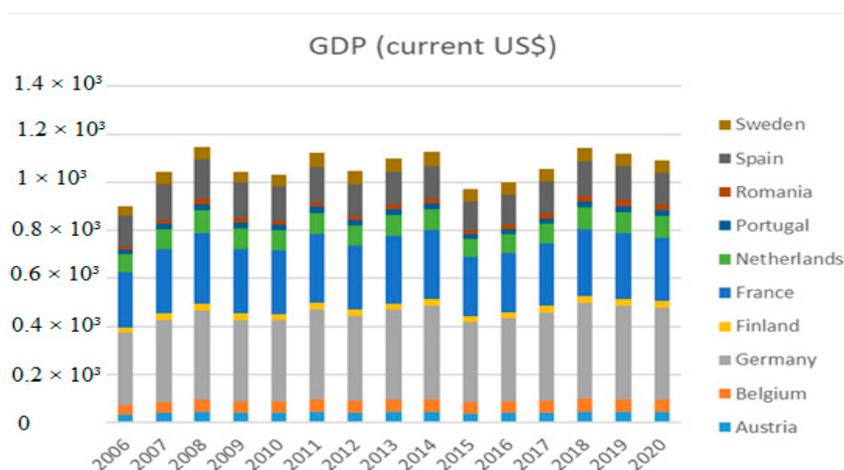


Figure 1. Data for GDP.

Below, the dynamics for GDP can be seen: In general, we observe similar dynamics for the reviewed member states. Germany seems to be the biggest one in terms of consumption, with Spain and France following behind it. Noteworthy changes can be associated with economic crises, such as the 2008 recession, or with oil-related shocks. We also see an increase in terms of the usage of renewable energy. However, it seems that coal is being gradually phased out.

As stated previously, three periods were chosen: 2006–2013, 2014–2020, and 2006–2020.

Our dependent variable is GDP, as it is the most common measure of economic growth. Our exogenous variables are:

Crude oil price per barrel.

Crude oil consumption (exajoules).

Coal consumption (exajoules).

Renewable energy consumption (exajoules).

Time dummy variable.

The first two were chosen to show the impact of oil consumption on economic growth. Coal consumption was added to show the effect of another type of fossil fuel. Renewable energy consumption was investigated, as it is very much the alternative to oil. Time dummies were added to account for crises and other major shifts. Initially, we also considered the inclusion of data on nuclear energy and natural gas consumption. However, the data on the former was missing for several countries, while the latter had troubling levels of correlation with other explanatory variables.

The Pooled regression model, Pooled weighted regression model, Fixed Effects, and Random Effects models were built for early 2000s, and they were compared with each other for accuracy and adequacy. The decision was made in favor of Fixed Effects model.

The main conclusions derived from this model are the following: it is important to mention that there was a multi-caliber in oil consumption between models of 2000–2008 and 2006–2020. This was due to the fact that the price of oil had rebounded strongly since 2005–2006, which did not have a negative impact on GDP. We believe that this situation caused multicollinearity in our model—this was a characteristic feature of the period 2000–2008, since, in the subsequent period 2006–2020, there was no such effect in this indicator.

Thus, start with testing the Pooled regression model [27] for EU countries for the period 2006–2013 period:

Pooled regression model was built, and some important tests were made (Figure 2):

```

Model 1: Pooled OLS, using 80 observations
Included 10 cross-sectional units
Time-series length = 8
Dependent variable: GDPblnUSD

-----
                coefficient  std. error  t-ratio  p-value
-----
const                -486.802    166.665   -2.921   0.0046   ***
CrudeoilpriceUSD~     4.15776     1.79594    2.315   0.0233   **
Oilexajoules          610.845     36.8939   16.56   9.26e-027 ***
Coalexajoules         138.097     72.9894    1.892   0.0623   *
Renewablesexajou~    148.804     254.742    0.5841  0.5609

Mean dependent var    1054.277  S.D. dependent var    1104.923
Sum squared resid     6261397  S.E. of regression    288.9382
R-squared              0.935080  Adjusted R-squared    0.931617
F(4, 75)              270.0658  P-value (F)           1.05e-43
Log-likelihood         -564.2306  Akaike criterion      1138.461
Schwarz criterion     1150.371  Hannan-Quinn         1143.236
rho                   0.857739  Durbin-Watson         0.202333

Excluding the constant, p-value was highest for variable 7 (Renewablesexajoules)

White's test for heteroskedasticity -
Null hypothesis: heteroskedasticity not present
Test statistic: LM = 53.7158
with p-value = P(Chi-square(14) > 53.7158) = 1.43654e-06

```

Figure 2. Pooled regression model.

We see that $R^2 = 0.9316$, which means that 93.16% of changes in the GDP level were explained by the changes in exogenous variables [28] (Crude oil price, Oil, Coal, and Renewables) within the linear regression model.

F_{test} shows us whether R^2 is random. We compared the value of the statistic with the critical value of the corresponding Fisher distribution at a significance level of 1% (Figure 3):

```

F(4, 75)
right-tail probability = 0.01
complementary probability = 0.99

Critical value = 3.58011

```

Figure 3. Compare the value of the statistic with the critical value of the corresponding Fisher distribution at a significance level of 1%.

$F(4,75) = 270.07 > F_{crit} = 3.58$, which means that R^2 was not formed under the influence of random variables, and the quality of the specification model was high.

Now then tested our model for heteroscedasticity (Figure 4).

```

White's test for heteroskedasticity
OLS, using 80 observations
Dependent variable: uhat^2

              coefficient      std. error   t-ratio   p-value
-----
const                378945           302395     1.253    0.2146
CrudeoilpriceUSD~   -7715.17           7117.66    -1.084    0.2824
Oilexajoules        -16924.7           71674.1    -0.2361   0.8141
Coalexajoules       196735            150777     1.305    0.1966
Renewablesexajou~  -1.11926e+06      659611     -1.697    0.0945 *
sq_Crudeoilprice~   38.7508           40.2246     0.9634   0.3389
X2_X3                605.921           683.761     0.8862   0.3788
X2_X4               -2882.57           1425.48    -2.022    0.0473 **
X2_X5                10815.6           6018.80     1.797    0.0770 *
sq_Oilexajoules     5607.01           11312.5     0.4956   0.6218
X3_X4               -18090.8           48694.7    -0.3715   0.7115
X3_X5                242710            152074     1.596    0.1153
sq_Coalexajoules   -14650.6           48517.4    -0.3020   0.7636
X4_X5                61925.2           159168     0.3891   0.6985
sq_Renewablesexaj~ -838470            461840     -1.815    0.0741 *

Unadjusted R-squared = 0.671448

Test statistic: TR^2 = 53.715837,
with p-value = P(Chi-square(14) > 53.715837) = 0.000001

```

Figure 4. Testing the model for heteroscedasticity.

There was heteroscedasticity in the model. The most significant variable was Renewables. We built a weighted least squares model to remove heteroscedasticity.

The Pooled weighted regression model then looked as it does in Figure 5.

```

Model 5: WLS, using 80 observations
Dependent variable: GDPblnUSD
Variable used as weight: Renewablesexajoules

              coefficient      std. error   t-ratio   p-value
-----
const                -906.748           222.029     -4.084    0.0001 ***
Oilexajoules         634.792           45.7803     13.87    2.17e-022 ***
Coalexajoules        228.433           58.6854     3.892    0.0002 ***
Renewablesexajou~  -214.160           209.663     -1.021    0.3103
CrudeoilpriceUSD~    8.62512           2.23655     3.856    0.0002 ***

Statistics based on the weighted data:

Sum squared resid    1716556   S.E. of regression    151.2859
R-squared            0.947549   Adjusted R-squared    0.944752
F(4, 75)            338.7297   P-value(F)            3.58e-47
Log-likelihood       -512.4672   Akaike criterion      1034.934
Schwarz criterion    1046.845   Hannan-Quinn          1039.710

Statistics based on the original data:

Mean dependent var   1054.277   S.D. dependent var    1104.923
Sum squared resid    6854681   S.E. of regression     302.3173

Excluding the constant, p-value was highest for variable 7 (Renewablesexajoules)

```

Figure 5. Testing Pooled regression models.

$R^2 = 0.9448$, which means that 94.48% of changes in the GDP level were explained by the changes in exogenous variables within the linear regression model.

p -value (F) = 3.58×10^{-47} —the value was also very small, which means that R^2 was not formed under the influence of random variables, and the quality of the specification model was high [29].

In the Pooled regression model, $\rho = 0.86$, which was close to 1, which means there was a huge chance of having individual effects.

Now then compared Fixed Effects model with Pooled regression model (Figure 6).

```

Model 3: Fixed-effects, using 80 observations
Included 10 cross-sectional units
Time-series length = 8
Dependent variable: GDPblnUSD

-----
                coefficient    std. error    t-ratio    p-value
-----
const                469.174        252.125        1.861        0.0672    *
Oilexajoules         227.037        122.774        1.849        0.0689    *
Coalexajoules       -139.940        134.867       -1.038        0.3032
Renewablesexajou~   536.659        180.746        2.969        0.0042   ***
CrudeoilpriceUSD~   1.68001         0.642709       2.614        0.0111   **

Mean dependent var  1054.277    S.D. dependent var  1104.923
Sum squared resid  592077.2    S.E. of regression  94.71466
LSDV R-squared      0.993861    Within R-squared     0.311348
LSDV F(13, 66)     821.9378    P-value(F)           1.28e-67
Log-likelihood      -469.8897    Akaike criterion     967.7794
Schwarz criterion   1001.128    Hannan-Quinn         981.1497
rho                 0.027463    Durbin-Watson        1.482783

Joint test on named regressors -
Test statistic: F(4, 66) = 7.45986
with p-value = P(F(4, 66) > 7.45986) = 5.08258e-05

Test for differing group intercepts -
Null hypothesis: The groups have a common intercept
Test statistic: F(9, 66) = 70.2189
with p-value = P(F(9, 66) > 70.2189) = 2.51686e-30

```

Figure 6. Compare Fixed Effects and Pooled regression models.

We tested the Fixed Effects model using the Joint test on named regressors. p -value = 5.08258×10^{-5} —the value was very small compared with the alpha value, so we chose the Fixed effects model from these two models.

Next, we checked the 3rd premise of the Gauss–Markov theorem—the presence of autocorrelation. We performed the Durbin–Watson statistic test with the 5% significance level. We obtained the critical values $d_L = 1.5337$ and $d_U = 1.7430$. The DW statistic was 1.4827. As we see, there was an autocorrelation. However, it will be explained further.

Now let's check our model for adequacy, for this we calculate $\hat{y}_{max_{it}}, \hat{y}_{min_{it}}$:

$$\hat{y}_{max_{it}} = a_{0_{max}} + a_{1_{max}} \times x_{it} + \dots + a_{i_{max}} \times x_{it} \quad (4)$$

$$\hat{y}_{min_{it}} = a_{0_{min}} + a_{1_{min}} \times x_{it} + \dots + a_{i_{min}} \times x_{it}, \quad (5)$$

Now, let us consider the Stochastic Effects model (Figure 7).

We looked through the Breusch–Pagan test and then the Hausman tests.

Using the results of Breusch–Pagan test [30] we compared the Pooled regression model with the Stochastic Effects model (Pooled vs. SE). p -value = $7.75515 \times 10^{-40} < \alpha$ value, respectively; from the two models, we chose the Stochastic Effects model.

Let us compare the Stochastic Effects model with the Fixed Effects model using the Houseman test: p -value = 0.00791073, which was also less than the alpha value, respectively. We selected the Fixed Effects model from these two models.

In the end, it turns out that, for the period 2006–2013, the Fixed Effects model corresponded best. Testing on the adequacy for the Fixed Effects model are shown. (Figure 8).

```

Model 4: Random-effects (GLS), using 80 observations
Included 10 cross-sectional units
Time-series length = 8
Dependent variable: GDPblnUSD

              coefficient   std. error   z         p-value
-----
const          -164.304      161.674   -1.016    0.3095
Oilexajoules    501.324      71.0564   7.055    1.72e-012 ***
Coalexajoules  -23.4666     109.261  -0.2148   0.8299
Renewablesexajou~ 885.315     132.934   6.660    2.74e-011 ***
CrudeoilpriceUSD~ 1.78220     0.668940  2.664    0.0077 ***

Mean dependent var 1054.277   S.D. dependent var 1104.923
Sum squared resid 8061736     S.E. of regression 325.6923
Log-likelihood     -574.3396   Akaike criterion 1158.679
Schwarz criterion 1170.589   Hannan-Quinn 1163.454
rho                0.027463   Durbin-Watson 1.482783

'Between' variance = 93681.8
'Within' variance = 8970.87
theta used for quasi-demeaning = 0.891242
corr(y,yhat)^2 = 0.925627

Joint test on named regressors -
Asymptotic test statistic: Chi-square(4) = 126.298
with p-value = 2.40909e-26

Breusch-Pagan test -
Null hypothesis: Variance of the unit-specific error = 0
Asymptotic test statistic: Chi-square(1) = 174.485
with p-value = 7.75515e-40

Hausman test -
Null hypothesis: GLS estimates are consistent
Asymptotic test statistic: Chi-square(3) = 11.8512
with p-value = 0.00791073

```

Figure 7. Breusch–Pagan test, followed by the Hausman tests.

$t(66, 0.025) = 1.997$

VARIABLE	COEFFICIENT	95% CONFIDENCE INTERVAL	
const	469.174	-34.2098	972.558
Oilexajoules	227.037	-18.0891	472.163
Coalexajoules	-139.940	-409.210	129.330
Renewablesexajou~	536.659	175.788	897.529
CrudeoilpriceUS~	1.68001	0.396795	2.96322

Figure 8. Testing on adequacy for the Fixed Effects model.

Now we check our model for adequacy. For this purpose, we calculate $\hat{y}_{max_{it}}$, $\hat{y}_{min_{it}}$ based on Equations (4) and (5).

Since $\hat{y}_{max_{it}} = 1785.189$, $\hat{y}_{min_{it}} = 0.545961$ and our forecast GDP = 586.8418 lay in this interval, our model was adequate, which means that the fourth premise of the Gauss–Markov theorem was satisfied, and the coefficients of the model were unbiased, consistent, and efficient.

We began analysis with the Pooled regression model for countries included in European Union for the period from 2014 to 2020.

We considered the influence of oil prices, oil, gas, coal, nuclear energy, and renewables consumption on economic growth of mentioned countries, specifically on GDP.

Build Pooled regression model and implement appropriate tests (Figure 9).

```

Pooled OLS, using 70 observations
Included 10 cross-sectional units
Time-series length = 7
Dependent variable: GDPbln

-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+
                coefficient  std. error  t-ratio  p-value
-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+
const                -110.324    370.736   -0.2976  0.7670
dt_15                 -84.8282   190.045   -0.4464  0.6568
Crudeoilprice         0.799673    3.61931    0.2209  0.8258
Oilexajoules         638.136     53.0648   12.03    4.49e-018 ***
Coalexajoules        -61.4635    93.2946   -0.6588  0.5124
Renewablesexajou~    560.190    184.441    3.037    0.0035 ***

Mean dependent var  1071.836  S.D. dependent var  1141.294
Sum squared resid   5513776  S.E. of regression  293.5179
R-squared           0.938651  Adjusted R-squared  0.933859
F(5, 64)           195.8437  P-value(F)          2.13e-37
Log-likelihood      -493.9250  Akaike criterion    999.8499
Schwarz criterion   1013.341  Hannan-Quinn        1005.209
rho                 0.889990  Durbin-Watson       0.153697

```

Excluding the constant, p-value was highest for variable 5 (Crudeoilprice)

```

White's test for heteroskedasticity -
Null hypothesis: heteroskedasticity not present
Test statistic: LM = 59.7203
with p-value = P(Chi-square(18) > 59.7203) = 2.27033e-06

```

Figure 9. Output statistics for Pooled regression model in period 2014–2020.

To understand how well GDP is explained by given indicators, we should look at R-squared modified—0.9386. It means that 93.86% of changes in GDP volume were explained by changes in oil prices, consumption of oil, gas, coal, nuclear energy, and renewables [31].

It was assumed that the equation of model contained a random perturbation, which means that the formula contained randomness. That is why we looked at p -value (F). It was equal to 2.13×10^{-63} (less than 2.36, see Figure 10), which means that R^2 was not random, it was not formed under the influence of random variables, and the quality of the model specification was high.

```

F(5, 64)
right-tail probability = 0.05
complementary probability = 0.95

Critical value = 2.35832

```

Figure 10. Critical value for Fisher test.

The next step is testing the model for heteroscedasticity (investigate the second hypothesis of the Gauss–Markov theory). It is obvious that there was no heteroscedasticity in the model, the second premise was fulfilled, the residuals of the model were homoscedastic, and the coefficients of the model were not biased, consistent, and efficient (Figure 11).

In the Pooled regression model, the $\rho = 0.89$ parameter was quite close to 1, so we still checked for the presence of individual effects, and we needed to consider other models.

Let us compare the Fixed Effects and Pooled regression models (Figure 12).

We tested the Fixed Effects model by Joint test. p -value = $P(F(5,55)) = 2.422 \times 10^{-6}$ —the value was very small, so we chose the Fixed effects model from two models (Pooled regression model and Model with Fixed Effects). We also conducted the Durbin–Watson test. *Stat. Durbin–Watson* = 1.77. The value was low, so we needed to find critical values according to the Durbin–Watson test:

```

5% critical values for Durbin–Watson test:
n = 70, k = 6
dL = 1.43

```

$$dU = 1.80$$

It turns out that the value did not fall into the dU interval, but was quite close to the critical value. Presumably, there was no autocorrelation in the model. It was probably necessary to introduce an additional variable that had an impact on our dependent variable GDP [32]. Nevertheless we first looked at the Random Effects model (see Figure 13).

```
White's test for heteroskedasticity
OLS, using 70 observations
Dependent variable: uhat^2
Omitted due to exact collinearity: X2_X3
```

	coefficient	std. error	t-ratio	p-value
const	-118068	162650	-0.7259	0.4712
dt_l5	128239	156041	0.8218	0.4150
Crudeoilprice	-4500.51	9555.15	-0.4710	0.6396
Oilexajoules	106947	122286	0.8746	0.3859
Coalexajoules	734343	452722	1.622	0.1110
Renewablesexajou~	256704	502011	0.5114	0.6113
X2_X4	-76203.9	58422.0	-1.304	0.1980
X2_X5	-227202	212149	-1.071	0.2892
X2_X6	187608	280649	0.6685	0.5068
sq_Crudeoilprice	42.7337	84.2995	0.5069	0.6144
X3_X4	700.743	1118.27	0.6266	0.5337
X3_X5	-2328.20	3417.75	-0.6812	0.4988
X3_X6	-3248.75	4905.78	-0.6622	0.5108
sq_Oilexajoules	-31523.1	16293.5	-1.935	0.0586 *
X4_X5	-349694	114986	-3.041	0.0037 ***
X4_X6	436967	96308.5	4.537	3.49e-05 ***
sq_Coalexajoules	20350.4	60757.6	0.3349	0.7390
X5_X6	603427	304518	1.982	0.0529 *
sq_Renewablesexajou~	-1.00108e+06	203396	-4.922	9.38e-06 ***

Unadjusted R-squared = 0.853147

Test statistic: $TR^2 = 59.720293$,
with p-value = $P(\text{Chi-square}(18) > 59.720293) = 0.000002$

Figure 11. White's test.

```
Fixed-effects, using 70 observations
Included 10 cross-sectional units
Time-series length = 7
Dependent variable: GDPbln
```

	coefficient	std. error	t-ratio	p-value
const	749.768	193.401	3.877	0.0003 ***
dt_l5	68.7495	58.7346	1.171	0.2468
Crudeoilprice	3.75304	1.05607	3.554	0.0008 ***
Oilexajoules	3.67377	109.648	0.03351	0.9734
Coalexajoules	-147.407	99.3564	-1.484	0.1436
Renewablesexajou~	228.417	210.897	1.083	0.2835

Mean dependent var 1071.836 S.D. dependent var 1141.294
Sum squared resid 312669.8 S.E. of regression 75.39831
LSDV R-squared 0.996521 Within R-squared 0.452322
LSDV F(14, 55) 1125.329 P-value(F) 2.94e-62
Log-likelihood -393.4800 Akaike criterion 816.9599
Schwarz criterion 850.6874 Hannan-Quinn 830.3569
rho -0.119916 Durbin-Watson 1.778010

LR test for rho = 0
Test statistic: $F(5, 55) = 9.08479$
with p-value = $P(F(5, 55) > 9.08479) = 2.42244e-06$

Test for differing group intercepts -
Null hypothesis: The groups have a common intercept
Test statistic: $F(9, 55) = 101.655$
with p-value = $P(F(9, 55) > 101.655) = 5.37331e-31$

Figure 12. Model with Fixed Effects.

```

Random-effects (GLS), using 70 observations
Included 10 cross-sectional units
Time-series length = 7
Dependent variable: GDPbln

      coefficient  std. error    z    p-value
-----
const          96.7430    181.753    0.5323  0.5945
dt_15         -57.3426     57.6645   -0.9944  0.3200
Crudeoilprice    1.87513    1.09423    1.714   0.0866  *
Oilexajoules   350.196     87.4103    4.006   6.17e-05 ***
Coalexajoules   15.1469     85.6726    0.1768  0.8597
Renewablesexajou~ 830.959    142.537    5.830   5.55e-09 ***

Mean dependent var  1071.836  S.D. dependent var  1141.294
Sum squared resid  9696650  S.E. of regression  386.2373
Log-likelihood      -513.6835 Akaike criterion    1039.367
Schwarz criterion   1052.858  Hannan-Quinn       1044.726

Breusch-Pagan test -
Null hypothesis: Variance of the unit-specific error = 0
Asymptotic test statistic: Chi-square(1) = 163.766
with p-value = 1.70151e-37

Hausman test -
Null hypothesis: GLS estimates are consistent
Asymptotic test statistic: Chi-square(5) = 23.6212
with p-value = 0.000256692

```

Figure 13. Random Effects model.

Let us test the model using the Brish–Pegan Test and the Hausman test [33].

Let us compare the random effects model with the united regressions model (Pooled) based on the Brish–Pegan test. p -value = $1.7015 \times 10^{-37} < 0.01$, respectively. We chose the Stochastic Effects model from two mentioned models [34].

Let us compare the Stochastic Effects model with the Fixed Effects model using the Hausman test: p -value = 0.00026. It was less than alpha (0.01), respectively. We chose the Fixed Effects model from two models. Taking into account that the Fixed Effects model corresponded for the period 2000–2020 and for the period that we recently considered (2014–2020) too, we can state with full confidence that the Fixed Effects model is the most effective for forecasting.

2.2. Analysis of the Model Received

LSDV R-squared and R-squared in limits take high values. A total of 45% of changes in GDP were explained by changes in independent variables under Fixed Effects model [35]. p -value was extremely small = 2.94×10^{-62} . So, the value of R-squared was not random, and the quality of the model specification was high.

2.3. Simulation Results and Their Discussion

As Fixed Effect was our choice for the model, the following equation was created to illustrate the effects that our chosen variables had on GDP (Figure 14).

	coefficient	std. error	t-ratio	p-value	
const	749.768	193.401	3.877	0.0003	***
dt_15	68.7495	58.7346	1.171	0.2468	
Crudeoilprice	3.75304	1.05607	3.554	0.0008	***
Oilexajoules	3.67377	109.648	0.03351	0.9734	
Coalexajoules	-147.407	99.3564	-1.484	0.1436	
Renewablesexajou~	228.417	210.897	1.083	0.2835	
Mean dependent var	1071.836	S.D. dependent var	1141.294		
Sum squared resid	312669.8	S.E. of regression	75.39831		
LSDV R-squared	0.996521	Within R-squared	0.452322		
LSDV F(14, 55)	1125.329	P-value(F)	2.94e-62		
Log-likelihood	-393.4800	Akaike criterion	816.9599		
Schwarz criterion	850.6874	Hannan-Quinn	830.3569		
rho	-0.119916	Durbin-Watson	1.778010		

Figure 14. Equation effects that our chosen variables had on GDP.

$$GDP_{it} = 749.77 + 3.75*OilPrice_{it} + 3.7*Oil(ex)_{it} - 147.4*Coal(ex)_{it} + 228.4*Renewables(ex)_{it} + 68.8*dt15_{it} + e_{it} \quad (6)$$

where:

Oilprice—Crude oil price.

Oil(ex)—oil consumption (exajoules).

Coal(ex)—coal consumption (exajoules).

Renewables (ex)—renewable energy consumption (exajoules).

Dt15—time dummy variable (for 2020 COVID pandemic).

In order to understand the significance of the explanatory variables, gretl automatically performs the *t*-test and shows its results, which can be seen next to the variables in the table for the FE model.

The regression results suggest that all explanatory variables, with the exception of coal consumption, were significant on the 1% level, with time dummy being another exception (significant on the 10% level instead). The conclusion that can be drawn is that, while renewable energy does have a significant effect on economic growth, oil dynamics still play an important role in the economic wellbeing of the selected states. Coefficients for both of them, respectively, had a positive sign. Moreover, due to the phase-out of coal consumption, its importance similarly diminished, and its coefficient was negative. The results for the time dummy also indicate that the the COVID-19 pandemic did have a significant effect on GDP. However, it is interesting to observe that the effect was positive. This may be associated with a greater shift towards renewable energy during the pandemic [36,37].

In order to check the adequacy of the model, prerequisites for the Gauss–Markov theorem were checked.

Prerequisite 1: Multicollinearity.

Correlation matrix for the variables (with the exception of the time dummy) can be seen in Figure 15.

GDP	Crudeoilprice	Oilexajoules	Coalexajoules
1.0000	0.0220	0.9567	0.7959
	1.0000	0.0120	0.0410
		1.0000	0.7846
			1.0000
Renewablesexaj~	0.8088	GDP	
	-0.1030	Crudeoilprice	
	0.7553	Oilexajoules	
	0.7800	Coalexajoules	
	1.0000	Renewablesexaj~	

Figure 15. Correlation matrix for the variables.

As can be seen, while there are some cases of correlation over 0,75, there were no dramatically high values for correlation between exogenous variables. Moreover, given that the signs of coefficients for other periods were the same, we can conclude that there was no multicollinearity present here.

Prerequisite 2: homoskedasticity.

According to the Wald test [38] for heteroskedasticity, we can reject the H0 that the units have a common error variance. Thus, we had heteroskedasticity in the residuals, which fulfilled this premise of the Gauss–Markov theorem.

Prerequisite 3: autocorrelation.

Gretl [39] automatically gives out the test values for the Darbin–Watson statistic. In this case, $dW = 1.778$, $dL = 1.43$, and $dU = 1.7672$. Accordingly, a table for acceptable values can be seen in Figure 16.

-	-	4-dU	-	dU	-	-
0	dL	dU	2	4-dU	4-dL	4
0	1.43	1.7672	-	2.2328	2.57	4

Figure 16. Acceptable values.

As can be seen, our given value lay in the “green zone”, indicating the absence of autocorrelation. This means that the residuals were free from autocorrelation, and the coefficients of the model were not biased, consistent, and efficient.

In order to test for adequacy (Figure 17), the prediction interval was constructed based on the confidence interval for the coefficients:

$$t(55, 0.025) = 2.004$$

VARIABLE	COEFFICIENT	95% CONFIDENCE INTERVAL	
const	749.768	362.184	1137.35
dt_15	68.7495	-48.9571	186.456
Crudeoilprice	3.75304	1.63664	5.86945
Oilexajoules	3.67377	-216.066	223.413
Coalexajoules	-147.407	-346.521	51.7079
Renewablesexajo~	228.417	-194.230	651.065

Figure 17. Test for adequacy.

Now, let us check our model for adequacy; for this, we calculate $\hat{y}_{max_{it}}, \hat{y}_{min_{it}}$: Now we check our model for adequacy. For this purpose, we calculate $\hat{y}_{max_{it}}, \hat{y}_{min_{it}}$: based on Equations (4) and (5).

Since $\hat{y}_{max_{it}} = 1963.9$, $\hat{y}_{min_{it}} = 158$, and our forecast GDP = 541 lay in this interval, our model was adequate, which means that the fourth premise of the Gauss–Markov theorem was satisfied. and the coefficients of the model were not biased, consistent, and efficient.

Thus, we see that the economy of countries exporting oil depends on oil and non-oil factors only by 32%, which means that it is not surprising that we missed a significant variable, and, because of which, we have autocorrelation and heteroscedasticity in the model. It can be concluded that the economy of the studied countries, among other things, depends on such factors as: unemployment, population, level of education, investment, etc.

Conclusions for the model:

- In the period from 2014 to 2020, alternative energy played a higher role, and therefore it was a significant variable. At the same time, the volatility of oil prices and its consumption were still important for the economic growth of countries.
- Changes in oil prices, consumption of oil, and renewables positively influenced the value of GDP of given countries (Austria, Belgium, Germany, Finland, France, Netherlands, Portugal, Romania, Spain, Sweden).

The negative value for the variable “Gas Consumption” can be explained by the fact that the increase in gas prices from 2014 to 2020 was a consequence of the increase in the costs of its extraction and processing. That is, in principle, the increase in gas consumption could not lead to an increase in the country’s GDP, but on the contrary, it led to a decrease in GDP.

2006–2020 period:

In articles [40–43], the authors investigated the relationship between the unemployment rate and oil prices, oil price uncertainty, and interest rates. The paper used the method of autoregressive distributed lag (ARDL). A fully modified conventional least squares regression (FMOLS) was also applied to find optimal estimates of long-term coefficients for regressions. All these tests were conducted in Sweden, Norway, Denmark, and Finland based on monthly data from January 2008 to February 2020. The relationship was found for Sweden, Norway, and Denmark. Long-term FMOLS regression coefficients have shown that an increase in oil prices leads to an increase in the unemployment rate in Sweden and Denmark. All countries, with the exception of Denmark, showed evidence of a causal relationship between oil prices and unemployment, thus indicating a strong relationship between these two variables.

Firstly, we built a Pooled regression model and made some important tests (Figure 18):

```

Model 29: Pooled OLS, using 149 observations
Included 10 cross-sectional units
Time-series length: minimum 14, maximum 15
Dependent variable: GDP

-----
                coefficient  std. error  t-ratio  p-value
-----
const                -301.853      94.4422   -3.196   0.0017   ***
Crudeoilprice         2.16990      1.10193    1.969   0.0509    *
Oilexajoules         611.091      28.5168   21.43   1.72e-046 ***
Coalexajoules        34.1476      49.8835    0.6845  0.4947
Renewablesexajou~   493.473      102.272    4.825   3.55e-06 ***
dt_15                 191.463      110.636    1.731   0.0857    *

Mean dependent var  1065.970  S.D. dependent var  1121.237
Sum squared resid  12074626  S.E. of regression  290.5821
R-squared           0.935104  Adjusted R-squared  0.932835
F(5, 143)          412.1061  P-value(F)         5.01e-83
Log-likelihood     -1053.471  Akaike criterion   2118.942
Schwarz criterion  2136.965  Hannan-Quinn      2126.264
rho                0.904715  Durbin-Watson     0.151870

Excluding the constant, p-value was highest for variable 7 (Coalexajoules)

White's test for heteroskedasticity -
Null hypothesis: heteroskedasticity not present
Test statistic: LM = 111.432
with p-value = P(Chi-square(18) > 111.432) = 1.70229e-15

```

Figure 18. Pooled regression model. For 2006–2020 period.

The adjusted R-squared was quite high, with low p -value of F, thus indicating that it was not formed due to random chance. The rho criterion was also close to 1, thus indicating a presence of significant individual effects.

Next, we looked at panel models (Figure 19) and compared them against OLS and each other.

If we are to look at the joint test on named regressors (Figure 20), we can see that its p -value was very close to 0. This means that the FE approach was preferable to OR.

The p -value in case of the Breusch–Pagan was very close to 0, which means that we could choose the RE model over the OR. In case of the Hausman test, the p -value was similarly low. This, on the other hand, signified that we choose the FE approach.

As can be seen, according to the results of the tests, the FE approach was the best one in this case. Therefore, it was used as the final modelling choice.

Model 30: Fixed-effects, using 149 observations
 Included 10 cross-sectional units
 Time-series length: minimum 14, maximum 15
 Dependent variable: GDP

	coefficient	std. error	t-ratio	p-value	
const	518.935	123.290	4.209	4.67e-05	***
Crudeoilprice	2.08844	0.333394	6.264	4.75e-09	***
Oilexajoules	189.064	55.4346	3.411	0.0009	***
Coalexajoules	-80.4627	65.1032	-1.236	0.2186	
Renewablesexajou~ dt_15	351.425 69.5762	66.0862 37.0832	5.318 1.876	4.28e-07	*** *
Mean dependent var	1065.970	S.D. dependent var	1121.237		
Sum squared resid	1018947	S.E. of regression	87.20139		
LSDV R-squared	0.994524	Within R-squared	0.404586		
LSDV F(14, 134)	1738.189	P-value(F)	5.0e-144		
Log-likelihood	-869.2817	Akaike criterion	1768.563		
Schwarz criterion	1813.623	Hannan-Quinn	1786.870		
rho	0.134107	Durbin-Watson	1.450197		

Joint test on named regressors -
 Test statistic: F(5, 134) = 18.2107
 with p-value = P(F(5, 134) > 18.2107) = 9.22418e-14

Test for differing group intercepts -
 Null hypothesis: The groups have a common intercept
 Test statistic: F(9, 134) = 161.546
 with p-value = P(F(9, 134) > 161.546) = 2.01536e-67

Distribution free Wald test for heteroskedasticity -
 Null hypothesis: the units have a common error variance
 Asymptotic test statistic: Chi-square(10) = 2403.61
 with p-value = 0

Figure 19. Panel models.

Model 32: Random-effects (GLS), using 149 observations
 Included 10 cross-sectional units
 Time-series length: minimum 14, maximum 15
 Dependent variable: GDP

	coefficient	std. error	z	p-value	
const	97.5975	144.286	0.6764	0.4988	
Crudeoilprice	2.20943	0.356131	6.204	5.51e-010	***
Oilexajoules	356.190	46.4623	7.666	1.77e-014	***
Coalexajoules	50.7998	59.6277	0.8519	0.3942	
Renewablesexajou~ dt_15	539.005 124.919	55.3086 37.6934	9.745 3.314	1.93e-022	*** ***
Mean dependent var	1065.970	S.D. dependent var	1121.237		
Sum squared resid	29799904	S.E. of regression	454.9107		
Log-likelihood	-1120.774	Akaike criterion	2253.548		
Schwarz criterion	2271.572	Hannan-Quinn	2260.871		
rho	0.134107	Durbin-Watson	1.450197		

'Between' variance = 107452
 'Within' variance = 7604.08
 mean theta = 0.931236
 corr(y,yhat)^2 = 0.928154

Joint test on named regressors -
 Asymptotic test statistic: Chi-square(5) = 152.452
 with p-value = 4.01375e-31

Breusch-Pagan test -
 Null hypothesis: Variance of the unit-specific error = 0
 Asymptotic test statistic: Chi-square(1) = 771.581
 with p-value = 8.14526e-170

Hausman test -
 Null hypothesis: GLS estimates are consistent
 Asymptotic test statistic: Chi-square(4) = 26.9194
 with p-value = 2.06389e-05

Figure 20. Joint test on named regressors.

3. Simulation Results

Since FE is our choice for the model, the following equation was created to illustrate the effects that our chosen variables have on GDP:

$$GDP_{it} = 518.93 + 2.08 * oilprice_{it} + 189.064 * Oil(ex)_{it} - 80.4627 * Coal(ex)_{it} + 351.425 * Renewables(ex)_{it} + 69.57 * dt15_{it} + e_{it} \tag{7}$$

where:

Oilprice—Crude oil price.

Oil(ex)—oil consumption (exajoules).

Coal(ex)—coal consumption (exajoules).

Renewables (ex)—renewable energy consumption (exajoules).

Dt15—time dummy variable (for 2020 COVID pandemic).

In order to understand the significance of the explanatory variables, gretl automatically performs the *t*-test and shows its results, which could be seen next to the variables in the table for the FE model.

The regression results suggest that all explanatory variables, with the exception of coal consumption, were significant on the 1% level, with time dummy being another exception (significant on the 10% level instead).

The conclusion that can be drawn is that, while renewable energy does have a significant effect on economic growth, oil dynamics still play an important role in the economic well-being of the selected states. Coefficients for both of them, respectively, had a positive sign. Moreover, due to the phase-out of coal consumption, its importance has similarly diminished, and its coefficient was negative. The results for the time dummy also indicate that the COVID-19 pandemic did have a significant effect on GDP. However, it is interesting to observe that the effect was positive. This may be associated with a greater shift towards renewable energy during the pandemic.

In order to check the adequacy of the model, the prerequisites for the Gauss–Markov theorem were checked.

Prerequisite 1—Multicollinearity.

In Figure 21, a correlation matrix for the variables (with the exception of the time dummy) can be seen.

GDP	Crudeoilprice	Oilexajoules	Coalexajoules
1.0000	0.0220	0.9567	0.7959
	1.0000	0.0120	0.0410
		1.0000	0.7846
			1.0000
Renewablesexaj~	0.8088		
	-0.1030		
	0.7553		
	0.7800		
	1.0000		

Figure 21. Correlation matrix for the variables for 2006–2020 period.

As can be seen, while there were some cases of correlations over 0.75, there were no dramatically high values for correlations between exogenous variables. Moreover, as the signs of coefficients for other periods were the same, we can conclude that there was no multicollinearity present here.

Prerequisite 2—homoskedasticity.

According to the Wald test for heteroskedasticity, we could reject the H0 that the units had a common error variance. Thus, we had heteroskedasticity in the residuals, which fulfilled this premise of the Gauss–Markov theorem.

Prerequisite 3—autocorrelation.

Gretl automatically gives out the test values for the Darbin–Watson statistic. In this case, DW = 1.450197, dL = 1.6635, and dU = 1.8020. Accordingly, a table for acceptable values can be seen in Figure 22.

-	-	4-dU	-	dU	-	-
0	dL	dU	2	4-dU	4-dL	4
-	1.6635	1.8020	-	2.1980	2.34	-

Figure 22. Test values for the Darbin–Watson statistic.

As can be seen, our given value lay in the “red zone”, thus indicating the presence of autocorrelation. However, this can be explained by the fact that we are only looking at the variables from the energy sectors. It is only to be expected that some significant variables (such as consumption and net trade, for example) are to be omitted.

In order to test for adequacy, the prediction interval was constructed based on the confidence interval for the coefficients (Figure 23).

VARIABLE	COEFFICIENT	95% CONFIDENCE INTERVAL	
const	518.935	275.089	762.782
Crudeoilprice	2.08844	1.42904	2.74783
Oilexajoules	189.064	79.4237	298.704
Coalexajoules	-80.4627	-209.225	48.3000
Renewablesexajo~	351.425	220.718	482.132
dt_15	69.5762	-3.76779	142.920

Figure 23. Confidence interval for the coefficients.

The minimum value for the GDP in this case was 3,898,729, while the maximum was 1,298,872,633. The real value (GDP for Sweden in 2020) was 54,122 bln USD. As the real value fell within the obtained interval, we can conclude that the model was adequate.

4. Discussion

We took an approach to solving the question that was raised at the beginning of the work: how oil prices, consumption of oil, coal, and renewable energy sources affect the GDP of the main EU oil and gas importing countries differs in the utmost accuracy of conclusions compared to other methods of assessing such a relationship.

In this article, several models for estimating the relationship between independent variables and a dependent variable (the GDP of European countries) were analyzed. The analysis has shown that the best model for identifying the correct relationship is a model with Fixed Effects.

The advantage of the model is that the model with Fixed Effects is as close to reality as possible. It is worth noting two important details that make it so accurate:

The second premise requires that the values of regressors related to different objects are independent of each other. However, it is important to emphasize that it admits the existence of a relationship between the values of regressors related to the same object, but different points in time: for example, it admits that xi3 can be correlated with xi2, and that, in turn, can be correlated with xi1. In other words, the future values of the regressor for a given object may depend on its past values. This is a realistic assumption. For example, oil consumption in this region today is probably related to its consumption in the past. Similarly, oil prices in Europe today are likely to affect the future European oil price.

The fourth premise requires that the regressor be exogenous in the sense that it should not be associated with a random error of the model. However, it admits the existence of a correlation between the value of the regressor x_{it} and the fixed effect μ_i . This is

also a realistic premise. As part of our example about energy consumption, the cultural characteristics of a given region (which are precisely characterized by its fixed effect) can influence the decision to change the price of this energy source (that is, the value of α).

This study made an attempt to take into account the most significant factors influencing sustainable growth within the macro level. The use of mathematical tools made it possible not only to increase the accuracy of the conclusions compared to other methods, but also to identify its fixed effects in each analyzed period, which increases the accuracy of the models that describe the impact of the variables we have chosen on the GDP and sustainable growth of countries. At the same time, it should be noted that the unsustainable development of the global economy imposes its effect on the development model.

5. Conclusions and Recommendations

To sum it up, there were observed three periods of GDP growth and other variables influencing those periods. In all of these time periods, the best model for evaluating the significance of factors in GDP growth became the Fixed Effects model. The results of analysis were approximately the same: renewable energy did have a significant effect on economic growth, while oil dynamics still played an important role in the economic well-being of the selected states. Coefficients for both of them, respectively, had a positive sign [44,45].

Nevertheless, the only difference in these time intervals is the following fact: It is important to mention that there was a multi-caliber in oil consumption between models of 2000–2008 and 2006–2020. This is due to the fact that the price of oil rebounded strongly since 2005–2006, which did not have a negative impact on GDP. We believe that this situation caused multicollinearity in our model—this was a characteristic feature of the period 2000–2008, since, in the subsequent period 2006–2020, there was no such effect in this indicator.

In conclusion, we can say that the value of renewable energy has increased significantly over the years. It is not surprising that many countries, especially ones from the EU, are pushing for it. Our recommendation is that they stay the course. More attention must be paid to the area of renewable energy, as well as the ways that it can be implemented.

On the other hand, oil still has a significant impact on the economy of many states. Thus, while renewable energy is good for the future, the shift from fossil fuels to alternative sources of energy must be gradual, so as to escape major ramifications that such sharp hits may have. Coal is of much lesser importance, so it is advisable to move away from it.

In the future, this analysis could be expanded to provide a more detailed description of the effect of specific types of renewable energy, as well as the effect on nuclear energy.

Author Contributions: Conceptualization, A.B.; methodology, A.Y.; software, A.B.; formal analysis, A.A.; writing—original draft preparation, M.M.; writing—review and editing, M.H. All authors have read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.

Funding: This research received no external funding.

Institutional Review Board Statement: Not applicable.

Data Availability Statement: Not applicable.

Conflicts of Interest: The authors declare no conflict of interest.

References

1. Burcu, O. Nuclear Energy-Economic Growth Nexus in OECD Countries: A Panel Data Analysis. *Int. J. Econ. Perspect.* **2017**, *11*, 138–154.
2. Dynan, K.; Sheiner, L. GDP as a Measure of Economic Well-being. In *Hutchins Center Working Paper 43*; The Brookings Institution: Washington, DC, USA, 2018; p. 4.
3. Rehman Khan, Z.Y.; Belhadi, A.M. Investigating the effects of renewable energy on international trade and environmental quality. *J. Environ. Manag.* **2020**, *272*, 15.
4. Raduzzi, R. The macroeconomics outcome of oil shocks in the small Eurozone economies. *World Econ.* **2019**, *43*, 191–211. [[CrossRef](#)]

5. Rafindadi, A. Impacts of renewable energy consumption on the German economic growth: Evidence from combined cointegration test. *Renew. Sustain. Energy Rev.* **2017**, *75*, 1130–1141. [[CrossRef](#)]
6. Awrejcewicz, J.; Krysko, V.A.; Kutepov, I.E.; Vygodchikova, I.Y. Quantifying chaos of curvilinear beam via exponents. *Commun. Non-Linear Sci. Numer. Simul.* **2015**, *27*, 81–92. [[CrossRef](#)]
7. Vazquez, P.V. Estimation of the potential effects of offshore wind on the Spanish economy. *Renew. Energy* **2017**, *111*, 815–824. [[CrossRef](#)]
8. Baldoni, E.; Coderoni, S.; di Giuseppe, E.; D’orazio, M.; Esposti, R.; Maracchini, G. A software tool for a stochastic life cycle assessment and costing of buildings’ energy efficiency measures. *Sustainability* **2021**, *13*, 7975. [[CrossRef](#)]
9. Borodin, A.; Zaitsev, V.; Mamedov, Z.F.; Panaedova, G.; Kulikov, A. Mechanisms for Tax Regulation of CO₂-Equivalent Emissions. *Energies* **2022**, *15*, 7111. [[CrossRef](#)]
10. Tong, D.; Zhang, Q.; Zheng, Y.; Caldeira, K.; Shearer, C.; Hong, C.; Qin, Y.; Davis, S.J. Committed Emissions from Existing Energy Infrastructure Jeopardize 1.5 °C Climate Target. *Nature* **2019**, *572*, 373–377. [[CrossRef](#)]
11. Sobamowo, G.M.; Ojolo, S.J. Techno-economic analysis of biomass energy utilization through gasification technology for sustainable energy production and economic development in Nigeria. *Energy* **2018**, *2018*, 4860252. [[CrossRef](#)]
12. Levi-Oguike, J.; Sandoval, D.; Ntagwirumugara, E. A Comparative Life Cycle Investment Analysis for Biopower Diffusion in Rural Nigeria. *Sustainability* **2022**, *14*, 1423. [[CrossRef](#)]
13. Breusch, T.S.; Pagan, A.R. A Simple Test for Heteroscedasticity and Random Coefficient Variation. *Econometrica* **1979**, *47*, 1287–1294. [[CrossRef](#)]
14. Subbotin, Y.; Shevaldin, V. On one method of constructing local parabolic splines with additional nodes. *Proc. Inst. Math. Mech. Ural. Branch Russ. Acad. Sci.* **2019**, *25*, 205–219.
15. Halunga, A.; Orme, C.; Yamagata, T. A Heteroskedasticity Robust Breusch-Pagan Test for Contemporaneous Correlation in Dynamic Panel Data Models. *J. Econom.* **2017**, *198*, 209–230. [[CrossRef](#)]
16. Tao, L.; Chen, Y.; Liu, X.; Wang, X. An integrated multiple criteria decision making model applying axiomatic fuzzy set theory. *Appl. Math. Model.* **2012**, *36*, 5046–5058. [[CrossRef](#)]
17. Büscher, C.; Ufer, U. The (Un)availability of Human Activities for Social Intervention: Reflecting on Social Mechanisms in Technology Assessment and Sustainable Development Research. *Sustainability* **2022**, *14*, 1394. [[CrossRef](#)]
18. Powell, D.J.; Romero, D.; Gaiardelli, P. New and Renewed Manufacturing Paradigms for Sustainable Production. *Sustainability* **2022**, *14*, 1279. [[CrossRef](#)]
19. Arellano, M.; Bover, O. Another look at the instrumental variables estimation of error components models. *J. Econom.* **1995**, *68*, 29–51. [[CrossRef](#)]
20. Lu, T. A Fuzzy Network DEA Approach to the Selection of Advanced Manufacturing Technology. *Sustainability* **2021**, *13*, 4236. [[CrossRef](#)]
21. Mamedov, Z.F.; Qurbanov, S.H.; Streltsova, E.; Borodin, A.; Yakovenko, I.; Aliev, A. Mathematical models for assessing the investment attractiveness of oil companies. *SOCAR Proc.* **2021**, *4*, 102–114. [[CrossRef](#)]
22. Wu, Z.; Zhao, Z.; Niu, G. *Introduction to the Popular Open Source Statistical Software (OSSS)*; Open Source Software for Statistical Analysis of Big Data; Bryant University: Smithfield, RI, USA, 2020.
23. Borodin, A.; Panaedova, G.; Ilyina, I.; Harputlu, M.; Kiseleva, N. Overview of the Russian Oil and Petroleum Products Market in Crisis Conditions: Economic Aspects, Technology and Problems. *Energies* **2023**, *16*, 1614. [[CrossRef](#)]
24. Kisswani, A.; Kisswani, K. Modeling the employment–oil price nexus: A non-linear cointegration analysis for the U.S. market. *J. Int. Trade Econ. Dev.* **2019**, *28*, 1–17. [[CrossRef](#)]
25. Fatima, T.; Mentel, G.; Doğan, B.; Hashim, Z.; Shahzad, U. Investigating the role of export product diversification for renewable, and non-renewable energy consumption in GCC (gulf cooperation council) countries: Does the Kuznets hypothesis exist? *Environ. Dev. Sustain.* **2022**, *24*, 8397–8417. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
26. Alzaid, A.; Al-Osh, M.A. First-Order Integer-Valued Autoregressive (INAR (1)) Process: Distributional and Regression Properties. *Stat. Neerl.* **1988**, *42*, 53–61. [[CrossRef](#)]
27. Brown, R.P.C.; Carmignani, F.; Fayad, G. Migrants’ remittances and financial development: Macro- and micro-level evidence of a perverse relationship. *World Econ.* **2013**, *36*, 636–660. [[CrossRef](#)]
28. Steutel, F.W.; van Harn, K. Discrete Analogues of Self-Decomposability and Stability. *Ann. Probab.* **1979**, *7*, 893–899. [[CrossRef](#)]
29. Lima, V.; Souza, T.; Cribari-Neto, F.; Fernandes, G. Heteroskedasticity-robust inference in linear regressions. *Comm. Statist. Simulation Comput.* **2009**, *39*, 194–206. [[CrossRef](#)]
30. Sovacool, B.K.; Schmid, P.; Stirling, A.; Walter, G.; MacKerron, G. Differences in carbon emissions reduction between countries pursuing renewable electricity versus nuclear power. *Nat. Energy* **2020**, *5*, 928–935. [[CrossRef](#)]
31. Değirmen, S.; Saltık, Ö. *Could Nuclear Energy Production and Economic Growth Relationship for Developed Countries Be an Incentive for Developing Ones?: A Panel ARDL Evidence Including Cointegration Analysis*; GELISIM-UWE 2019 Special Issue, İstanbul Gelişim Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi; Mersin University: Mersin, Turkey, 2019; pp. 1–28. [[CrossRef](#)]
32. Hausman, J.A. Specification Tests in Econometrics. *Econometrica* **1978**, *46*, 1251–1271. [[CrossRef](#)]
33. Greene, W. Fixed and Random Effects in Stochastic Frontier Models. *J. Product. Anal.* **2005**, *23*, 7–32. Available online: <http://www.jstor.org/stable/41770178> (accessed on 8 February 2023). [[CrossRef](#)]

34. deHaan, E. Using and Interpreting Fixed Effects Models. 2021. Available online: https://papers.ssrn.com/sol3/papers.cfm?abstract_id=3699777 (accessed on 8 February 2023).
35. Lepore, D.; Micozzi, A.; Spigarelli, F. Industry 4.0 Accelerating Sustainable Manufacturing in the COVID-19 Era: Assessing the Readiness and Responsiveness of Italian Regions. *Sustainability* **2021**, *13*, 2670. [[CrossRef](#)]
36. Basu, A.; Mandal, A.; Martín, N.; Pardo, L. Generalized Wald-type tests based on minimum density power divergence estimators. *Statistics* **2016**, *50*, 1–26. [[CrossRef](#)]
37. Borodin, A.; Mityushina, I.; Harputlu, M.; Kiseleva, N.; Kulikov, A. Factor Analysis of the Efficiency of Russian Oil and Gas Companies. *Int. J. Energy Econ. Policy* **2023**, *13*, 172–188. [[CrossRef](#)]
38. Lee, C. Adkins, Using gretl for Monte Carlo experiments. *J. Appl. Econom.* **2010**, *5*, 880–885.
39. Segarra-Blasco, A.; Teruel, M.; Cattaruzzo, S. The economic reaction to non-pharmaceutical interventions during Covid-19. *Econ. Anal. Policy* **2021**, *72*, 592–608. [[CrossRef](#)]
40. COVID-19. European Centre for Disease Prevention and Control. Published 2021. Available online: <https://www.ecdc.europa.eu/en> (accessed on 14 January 2022).
41. Hale, T.; Angrist, N.; Goldszmidt, R.; Kira, B.; Petherick, A.; Phillips, T. A global panel database of pandemic policies (Oxford COVID-19 Government Response Tracker). *Nat. Hum. Behav.* **2021**, *5*, 529–538. [[CrossRef](#)]
42. Claeson, M.; Hanson, S. COVID-19 and the Swedish enigma. *Lancet* **2021**, *397*, 259–261. [[CrossRef](#)]
43. Olgarnier, D.; Mogensen, T.H. The COVID-19 pandemic in Denmark: Big lessons from a small country. *Cytokine Growth Factor Rev.* **2020**, *53*, 10–12. [[CrossRef](#)]
44. Mamedov, Z.F.; Qurbanov, S.H.; Streltsova, E.; Borodin, A.; Yakovenko, I.; Aliev, A. Assessment of the potential for sustainable development of electric power enterprises: Approaches, models, technologies. *SOCAR Proc.* **2022**, *2*, 15–27. [[CrossRef](#)]
45. Borodin, A.; Natocheeva, N.; Khominich, I.; Kulikov, A.; Shchegolevatykh, N. The Impact of the Business Environment on the Effectiveness of the Implementation of the Financial Strategy of the Oil and Gas Company. *Int. J. Energy Econ. Policy* **2021**, *11*, 13–21. [[CrossRef](#)]

Disclaimer/Publisher’s Note: The statements, opinions and data contained in all publications are solely those of the individual author(s) and contributor(s) and not of MDPI and/or the editor(s). MDPI and/or the editor(s) disclaim responsibility for any injury to people or property resulting from any ideas, methods, instructions or products referred to in the content.